

TOKYO GAZETTE

A MONTHLY REPORT OF CURRENT POLICIES,
OFFICIAL STATEMENTS AND STATISTICS

VOLUME V

No. 1

CONTENTS

POLITICAL MOVEMENTS AND THE STUDENT

(Bureau of Educational Research, Department of Education)

A NATIONAL STAGE AND SCREEN

(Board of Information)

JAPAN'S POPULATION EXCEEDS
A HUNDRED MILLION

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SITUATION IN CHINA

FROM JAPANESE POINTS OF VIEW

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CONTENTS

POLITICAL MOVEMENTS AND THE STUDENT <i>(Bureau of Educational Research, Department of Education)</i>	1
A NATIONAL STAGE AND SCREEN <i>(Board of Information)</i>	7
JAPAN'S POPULATION EXCEEDS A HUNDRED MILLION <i>(Board of Information)</i>	10
EARLY HISTORY OF JAPANESE RAILWAYS (II) <i>(Board of Tourist Industry)</i>	14
TO STRENGTHEN THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION LAW (III) <i>(Board of Planning)</i>	19
FROM JAPANESE POINTS OF VIEW Gendai-Indo-Ron (Contemporary India) Noro Koti (Noro Height)	24
SITUATION IN CHINA	40
1. Recent Important Operations <i>(Army Press Section, Imperial Headquarters)</i>	
2. Activities of the Imperial Naval Forces <i>(Naval Press Section, Imperial Headquarters)</i>	
DOCUMENTS	47
1. Concerning the Formal Recognition of Manchoukuo by the Bulgarian Government	
2. Concerning the Exchange of Ratifications of the Treaty of Amity between Japan and Iran	
3. Concerning the Foreign Minister's Statement Clarifying Japan's Foreign Policy	
4. Concerning Recognition of the State of Croatia	
5. Concerning the Trade Negotiations between Japan and the Soviet Union	
6. Concerning the Visit of President Wang Ching-wei of the National Government of China	
7. Concerning the Participation of Croatia in the Three-Power Pact	
8. Concerning the Demarcation, on the Spot, of the Frontier between Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia	
9. Concerning the Japanese-Netherlands East Indies Negotiations	

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The TOKYO GAZETTE is published monthly by the Tokyo Gazette Publishing House under the supervision of the Board of Information. Its purpose is primarily to supply information concerning the nature of problems being confronted today by the Japanese nation as a whole, and of the governmental steps being taken to solve these problems.

The material in the TOKYO GAZETTE is selected mainly from the *Weekly Report*, edited by the same Board. The accuracy and comprehensiveness of data presented in the *Report* are fully established. For the benefit of students of Japanese affairs, the TOKYO GAZETTE is endeavouring to maintain these qualities in the hope that its publication will eliminate unfortunate misunderstandings and thus contribute to world peace and international goodwill.

POLITICAL MOVEMENTS AND THE STUDENT

BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH,
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

HERETOFORE there has been much discussion on the question of students participating in political movement. The nationwide acceptance of the new structure movement has naturally raised the issue of its relationship to the student class, and one of the major problems confronting Japanese students today is in what manner should they participate in the National Movement for Assisting the Throne.¹

The views advanced in this connection may be divided into two categories: First, it is contended that from the very nature of his essential duty, the student should be advised to devote himself exclusively to the study and training required of him; he should be persuaded not to participate in politics for the reason that as yet he is only undergoing preparation in readiness for active service in later life. On the other hand, there are those who maintain that since there is scarcely any department of life not concerned in some way with politics, neither the study nor the training to which the student is to devote himself will ever remain outside the domain of politics. It is argued, therefore, that a student ambitious enough to take the lead in any phase of national life later must have an interest in politics from his school days and possibly take some part therein. These two opposing views are explained by the fact that they have arisen from different interpretations of the term "politics."

The Meaning of Politics

Politics is frequently defined as being the life of a nation. It embraces a very extensive field of human activity; its ramifications are manifold; its meaning varies according as political development assumes diversified forms in different ages. We are familiar with such phrases as "political negotiations to be carried on," "political ability to deal with," "transformed into a political issue" and so on. The "politics" as it is used today, signifies either "parliamentary government," "political practice" or "a political movement." "Politics" itself is so complex that it bears meanings of

¹ See for reference an article entitled "National Movement for Assisting the Throne" in the November, 1940, issue of TOKYO GAZETTE.

wide range and fine shades, its general concept being liable to variations according to time and circumstances. The meaning of "politics" as it is used today may no longer be the same as that of yesterday. We are given to understand that our daily life is closely associated with the politics of the day; that is, we are always participating in politics in a broad sense. Particularly is this so now that Japan is reverting to her original political structure in which all Japanese subjects assist the Throne in the administration of State affairs by performing to the best of their ability their appointed tasks. For each subject of the Empire to fulfil his duty through his work is in itself an act of assisting the Throne. We thus have two types of politics; first, politics in a narrow sense, as expressed in the activities of the State or the movements of the people connected therewith, which are carried out in conformity with the provisions of the Imperial Constitution, Laws or Ordinances; second, politics in a broad sense, as embodied in the assistance to the Throne by each and every subject through his functional service to the State.

To assist the Throne is to fulfil one's duty as a subject keeping always in mind the fact that a subject's every act, likewise his conduct, is correlated to State affairs and is designed to help achieve national purposes. It is necessary for him to realize that every phase of his daily life is most intimately interrelated with the high task of assisting the Throne. In this sense, it is pertinent to say that in Japan each subject participates in the politics of the country.

To Assist the Throne as Students

It has been made sufficiently clear that today the term "politics" has come to bear a new signification. As has been explained, the term has long been employed in meanings so diverse that to answer briefly to the question as to the advisability of students' direct participation in politics is liable to cause misunderstandings. Since service to the State through the fulfilment of one's duty as a Japanese subject constitutes the principles underlying the National Movement for Assisting the Throne, the way in which students should contribute toward the movement is to refrain from participating in so-called political movements to the neglect of study, their primary duty.

In the past there have been few cases in which students took part in elections and other political activities. By virtue of the Public Peace Police Law, the student in Japan is barred from participating in any "political associations" designed to exercise an influence

GLIMPSES OF STUDENT LIFE

Right: A student reading the notice of an ultra-curricular lecture on "Neutrality of Foreign Concessions in China" at the entrance of a lecture-hall of the Tokyo Imperial University.

Below: In the reading-room of the school library of the Tokyo Imperial University.





Students doing their bit to assist in the nationwide project for expanding productive capacity.

upon political affairs. In view of the essential duty of the student, it is perfectly natural that he should be placed under the ban, restraining his participation in politics in the narrow sense, that is, in any political organization or a practical movement sponsored by such.

Some years ago there were certain underhand movements among students which were definitely of a political nature. Needless to add, students should be warned never to join such movements whatever their designation.

From the foregoing considerations it is clear that the question of how students should contribute toward assisting the Throne is a matter to be decided on the basis of their duty as students. As has been pointed out before, students are still at the stage when they are merely preparing themselves for future usefulness in society. They cannot, therefore, be expected to live up to the standards set for active members of society. There is no denying that the primary duty of the student lies in assiduously pursuing the necessary study and training designed to mould him into a worthy member of the nation. The corollary is that the students' way of assisting the Throne should find expression in making the most serious effort to fulfil their immediate duties, being ever mindful of their future responsibilities. They must not, however, forget the important fact that they are no other than members of the Japanese nation, and as such they must bear certain responsibilities in common with the older members. Under the current emergency, in particular, they must be alive to the importance of their own place in national life in advancing the high cause for which the nation stands and for which she is now fighting.

Learning and Education

Whenever problems relating to students are at issue, it is essential to have a right and clear conception of learning and education. That Japanese education originates in the high and broad principles upon which the Empire was founded has been made clear on many relevant occasions. In the light of this basic principle of education, to pursue learning, in the case of Japanese students, is to train themselves as loyal subjects of the Japanese Empire. Accordingly, schools should function, first of all, as institutions for moulding the youth of the nation with that basic purpose in view, in addition to their function of imparting knowledge. It does not follow, then, that to devote oneself to one's duty as a student is to keep aloof from politics in a broad sense or from national life of which he is

an integral part. On the contrary one is required to take keen interest in and gain the right and full understanding of domestic and international political developments of the day. Without such knowledge of political affairs, even students cannot fulfil their duty as loyal Japanese subjects today. In the past, learning has frequently been pursued only in terms of abstract ideas isolated from the realities of life. As a consequence, there have been not a few among students who are transcendent as thinkers but have little interest in national affairs. Endeavours are being made, therefore, to improve education in principle and practice to conform with the right conception of learning and of politics.

Today many advocate that the student should think and act politically and take part in politics. If what they mean is to bring student life into politics in its broad sense, and if it be exemplified by such acts as cooperating in the endeavours to increase the production of foodstuffs, which means participating in national policy, then the proposition will be heartily accepted by all thinking people, and not least by educational authorities.

A NATIONAL STAGE AND SCREEN

BOARD OF INFORMATION

NO national policy today is perfect unless it takes full cognizance of the importance of culture in the building up of a modern nation. The reorganization and enlargement of the Cabinet Information Bureau in November, 1940, when it became the Board of Information, was the first step toward an organized effort for pursuing a comprehensive cultural policy. The Board has since formulated various plans for elevating national cultural standards in cooperation with other Government agencies. The following are some of the problems with which the Board is confronted and the measures which are being taking to solve them.

Problems of the Theatre

The theatrical performances of olden days reflected the national life of the Japanese people and indicated their wholesome national sentiments. But in later times various historical circumstances have prevented a natural development in the right direction. For instance, the *Kabuki* is one of the best traditional arts of Japan; however, the continual changes in the people's mode of living and particularly the rapid change in social conditions since the Restoration of 1868, have rendered this classical drama out of keeping with the times both in form and subject matter, with the result that today the *Kabuki* plays can be appreciated and enjoyed only by persons of special taste and culture. The comparatively recent plays of the "New School," too, are meeting more or less the same fate. These so-called "New Plays" have by this time had quite a long experience and, technically, some of them have proved to be excellent. But, unfortunately having developed under the influence of modern European conceptions, they are apt to breed ideas which are incompatible with the national spirit of the Japanese.

Motion Pictures

In early days the screen in Japan was used merely for the reproduction of theatrical performances. With the increase in the importation of European and American films, the film industry made

progress under foreign influence, and finally opened up a field of its own apart from the theatre. But Japanese motion pictures being of fairly recent inception and having developed with lightning rapidity, always under the influence and stimulus of Western films, most of them are as yet devoid of any truly Japanese character either in form or in subject matter. This probably explains why our screen plays are often spoken of slightly as being mere commercial enterprises, pandering to the people's liking for a sensuous thrill.

Hitherto the State has enforced some measure of control, albeit somewhat negative, over the screen as well as the stage, but no positive measures were taken to promote the development of these cultural attributes and make use of them for national purposes. It is unfortunate that although there have been men of insight both in the film world and in theatrical circles who realized and exerted themselves to remedy this shortcoming, their efforts proved futile before the general trend of the times.

Government Measures

It was in view of these circumstances that the Government enacted the Motion Picture Law in April, 1939, with the object of elevating the quality of motion pictures and ensuring a sound development of the film industry. It may naturally be anticipated that similar measures will be taken in the future with regard to the theatre. The Motion Picture Association, a foundation established in 1935 as a link between the Government and the public in matters relating to film production, will be reorganized so as to embrace all those who are concerned with the film industry and will thus be made an agency through which administrative control can be exercised, while the Japan Motion Picture Company is to be granted sanction as a sole distributor of cultural pictures. It is the Government's intention to take various other measures for the perfection of a machinery under which both the cinema and theatre will culturally serve the nation. In view of the necessity to provide cultural facilities for the country districts, which are comparatively less favoured in this respect, the Government has decided to stimulate systematic activities of circulating moving picture shows and travelling theatrical groups.

The elevation of films and plays in quality, however, cannot be hoped for by mere organization. Only when various concrete measures are carried out in line with the Government's cultural policy will the production of good films and plays be made possible, and the enlightenment and publicity work for the realization of national ideals be achieved with any measure of success. For this purpose the

Government has commissioned the six leading film producing companies to make good examples of national films, and at the same time more than ten theatrical companies were requested to stage first-rate plays with the ultimate object of developing dramas characteristic of the Japanese people.

Significance of a National Stage and Screen

By a national stage and screen is meant theatricals and films that will benefit the nation in general. In the first place they should have a national character; in other words they should properly reflect the traditional character of the Japanese people. No matter what their theme and plot may be, they should be a profound interpretation of Japanese life fostered by their own history in their own land. Such films and plays will appeal to the sentiment of the people and arouse in them consciousness of their being Japanese, which will give them strength to lead their everyday lives with devotion. Thus, theatricals and motion pictures, by virtue of their national ideals, will be a guiding force to stimulate the sound development of national culture.

Films and plays, however, cannot be called national in the true sense of the word, if they are devoid of interest and remain no better than the mere preaching of principles. It is, therefore, necessary that they should make an appeal to and impress the whole nation. In short they must be highly artistic. Only when they are highly artistic and at the same time of strong guiding force, will their existence for the sake of the nation be justified. They will be appreciated and enjoyed by all the Japanese people, inspiring them with hope and strength to struggle with every adversity.

National theatricals and films should be rooted in national life. Whatever mode of life be adopted, they should be the guiding and motive force of wholesome living and foster sound thought. The birth of national plays and films will doubtless be attended with considerable difficulties, but the enthusiasm to overcome such obstacles will make possible their coming into being.

In the midst of the present complicated international situation Japan is devoting the whole of her national strength to the execution of her mission, the establishment of a new order of things in this part of the world. It is, therefore, an important and honourable task for the nation to cooperate in bringing into existence truly national dramas and films that will have an inspiring effect on the morale of the people enabling them to find hope and pleasure in their lives and to contribute toward the growth of our national fortunes.

JAPAN'S POPULATION EXCEEDS A HUNDRED MILLION

BOARD OF INFORMATION

ACCORDING to the 1940 census, taken on October 1, 1940, and made public on April 18, 1941, the population of Japan including Japan Proper, Tyosen, Taiwan, Karahuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands, totals 105,226,101, representing an increase of approximately 6,300,000 or about 6 1/2 per cent as compared with 1935, when the last census was taken.

Of the new total, 52,896,862 are male and 52,329,239 female, while Japan Proper claims a total population of 73,114,308. How Japan's population has continued to increase since 1920, when the first national census was taken, is shown in the following table:

CENSUS YEAR	TOTAL POPULATION FOR ENTIRE TERRITORY	INCREASE		TOTAL POPULATION FOR JAPAN PROPER	INCREASE	
		NUMBER	PERCENTAGE		NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
1920	77,728,731			55,963,033		
1925	84,278,999	6,550,268	8.4	59,736,822	3,773,789	6.7
1930	91,421,410	7,142,411	8.5	64,450,005	4,713,183	7.9
1935	98,934,173	7,512,763	8.2	69,254,148	4,804,143	7.5
1940	105,226,101	6,291,928	6.4	73,114,308	3,860,160	5.6

It may be noted in the above table that the rate of increase in population for the entire territory has fallen off both in number and percentage as compared with the previous census figures. As for the total population of Japan Proper, the new total represents an increase of approximately 3,860,000 over the 1935 figure, the rate of increase being nearly the same as that shown in the 1925 census over the 1920 figure but showing a decrease of approximately a million as compared with 1930 or 1935. This decrease in the rate of increase is apparently due to a decrease made in the rate of natural increase in population consequent upon the hostilities in China and also to the increased migration of Japanese to the Continent and overseas territories.

Of the total 47 prefectures in Japan Proper, the population has increased during the last five years in 33 including Tokyo, Kyoto, Osaka, Kanagawa, Hyogo, Nagasaki, Niigata, Saitama, Gunma, Tiba, Ibaraki, Totigi, Nara, Mie, Aiti, Sizuoka, Yamanashi, Gifu,

Miyagi, Hukushima, Iwate, Aomori, Yamagata, Akita, Toyama, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Wakayama, Ehime, Hukuoka, Saga, Miyazaki and Hokkaido. Among these prefectures, the rise in population is the most remarkable in Tokyo which is credited with an increase of little over 985,000, followed by Osaka with 495,000, Kanagawa with 348,000, Hyogo with 297,000, Aiti with 303,000 and Hukuoka with 338,000, the rate of increase being over 10 per cent for any of these prefectures.

The remaining 14 prefectures, comprising Siga, Nagano, Hukui, Isikawa, Tottori, Simane, Okayama, Tokushima, Kagawa, Koti, Oita, Kumamoto, Kagosima and Okinawa, have shown decreases, most notably in Isikawa, Tokushima, Kagawa, Kumamoto and Okinawa, the population having fallen off by between 10,000 and 18,000 in each of these prefectures. In this connection it may be noted that all these districts are situated west of Tokyo. It may also be of some interest that but few prefectures had previously shown decreases in population, the only such instances being Nagano, Koti and Saga prefectures, where the population fell off during the 1930-35 period. The fact that in the 1940 census as many as 14 prefectures are credited with less people than before may be taken to indicate a recent trend of population shifting from certain prefectures to certain others.

Among the various cities in Japan Proper, the rate of increase in population as shown in the 1940 census is the highest for Amagasaki with a rise of 134 per cent, followed by Kawasaki with 94 per cent.

Of the six major cities the recent increase in population has been the largest in number for Tokyo and in percentage for Yokohama as compared with 1935, while the population of Kyoto remains practically unchanged.

The census returns for these six cities follow:

CITIES	POPULATION IN 1940	POPULATION IN 1935	INCREASE IN POPULATION	RATE OF INCREASE
Tokyo .	6,778,804	5,875,667	903,137	15.4%
Kyoto .	1,089,726	1,080,593	9,133	0.8
Osaka . .	3,252,340	2,989,874	262,466	8.8
Yokohama .	968,091	704,290	263,801	37.5
Kobe .	967,234	912,179	55,055	6.0
Nagoya .	1,328,084	1,082,816	245,268	22.7

Of the total population for Japan Proper, the urban areas claim a total of a little over 27,577,000 or approximately 38 per cent and the rural areas a little over 45,536,000 or approximately 62 per cent.

The 1940 census covers all the inhabitants of Japanese territory,

both Japanese and natives of the overseas territories, not excluding even those serving the army and navy outside Japanese territory, the latter having been entered in the census by the heads or other responsible members of their families. No such entries as these were made in the previous censuses. Therefore, the figures given in the two tables that follow, which set forth further details of the 1940 census, do not necessarily represent the exact numbers of those inhabiting the respective areas at the time of the recent census.

FINAL RETURNS OF THE 1940 CENSUS
FOR THE EMPIRE

	POPULATION	MALE	FEMALE
Japan Proper	73,114,308	36,166,010	36,948,297
Tyosen	24,326,327	12,266,230	12,060,097
Taiwan	3,872,084	2,970,655	2,901,429
Karahuto	414,891	239,835	175,056
Kwantung Leased Territory	1,367,334	781,592	585,742
South Sea Islands	131,157	72,540	58,617
Total	105,226,101	52,896,862	52,329,239

FINAL RETURNS BY PREFECTURES
FOR JAPAN PROPER

PREFECTURES	POPULATION	MALE	FEMALE
Tokyo	7,554,971	3,795,875	3,759,096
Kyoto	1,729,993	863,494	866,499
Osaka	4,792,966	2,460,574	2,332,392
Kanagawa	2,188,974	1,137,936	1,051,038
Hyogo	3,221,238	1,622,778	1,598,454
Nagasaki	1,370,063	698,627	671,436
Nagata	2,064,402	1,017,080	1,047,322
Saitama	1,608,039	798,321	809,718
Gunma	1,299,027	637,708	661,319
Tiba	1,588,425	776,541	811,884
Ibaraki	1,620,000	801,914	818,086
Totigi	1,206,657	595,599	615,058
Nara	620,509	305,681	314,828
Mie	1,198,783	585,427	613,356
Aichi	3,166,592	1,582,580	1,584,012
Sizuoka	2,017,860	996,813	1,021,047
Yamanashi	663,026	328,036	334,970
Saga	703,679	345,631	358,048
Gifu	1,265,024	632,820	632,204
Nagano	1,710,729	833,987	876,742
Miyagi	1,271,238	637,888	633,350
Hokkaido	1,625,521	799,788	825,733
Iwate	1,095,793	544,276	551,517
Aomori	1,000,509	496,614	503,895

(FINAL RETURNS BY PREFECTURES, CONTINUED)

PREFECTURES	POPULATION	MALE	FEMALE
Yamagata	1,119,338	548,404	570,934
Akita	1,052,275	524,018	528,257
Hakui	643,904	312,075	331,829
Ishikawa	757,676	363,922	393,754
Toiyama	822,569	401,261	421,308
Tottori	484,390	233,964	250,426
Simane	740,940	367,811	373,083
Okaiari	1,329,318	651,197	678,161
Hiroshima	1,869,104	936,956	932,168
Yamaguti	1,294,242	658,265	635,977
Wakayama	865,074	427,217	437,857
Tokushima	718,717	354,413	364,294
Kagawa	730,394	359,139	371,255
Fukushima	1,178,701	580,839	597,866
Koti	709,286	348,907	360,379
Hukudaka	3,094,132	1,577,063	1,517,069
Oita	972,975	473,521	499,454
Saga	701,517	343,047	358,470
Kumamoto	1,368,179	666,886	701,293
Miyazaki	840,317	417,180	423,137
Kagoshima	1,589,467	765,603	823,864
Okinawa	374,379	270,680	303,899
Hokkaido	3,272,718	1,695,600	1,577,118
Total for Japan Proper	75,114,308	36,566,070	38,548,298

EARLY HISTORY OF JAPANESE RAILWAYS

BOARD OF TOURIST INDUSTRY

II

AT the outset, railway construction came under the jurisdiction of the Department of Home Affairs, but with the creation of the Department of Public Works in October, 1870, the entire work was taken over by this new Department. As construction along the different sections of the projected line progressed, the authorities were faced with the urgent necessity of establishing one supervising office for the entire railway system. It was in this way that on August 4, 1871, the Railway Bureau came into being within the Department of Public Works. Meanwhile, the erection of stations, engine-sheds, bridges, and other necessary structures was fast under way. At that time brick was considered an essential material in construction work and this seemed to have been almost indispensable to the foreign engineering staff. Brick, however, was an imported commodity, and hence not only was it an expensive item but was not easily procurable. Japan being a mountainous country where stone was abundantly available, it was decided to replace the expensive brick by stone, so that stone was used in the main structure of Yokohama Station. Begun in February, 1871, this two-storied building reached completion in September of the same year. Other stations, such as Sinagawa, Kanagawa, Turumi, Kawasaki, and Sinbasi were all finished about the same time. When the construction of the Tokyo terminal was first undertaken it was known as "Siódome," but it was subsequently renamed "Sinbasi."

With the work nearing completion the Railway Bureau, after much discussion with the other government agencies concerned, decided to fix the tariff on the line, and submitted a draft to the Administrative Council for approval. In the meantime the Administrative Council issued a proclamation on May 3, 1872, announcing the opening of the first railway service in the country between Tokyo and Yokohama, temporarily operating between Sinagawa and Yokohama, as from May 7 in the 5th year of Meizi, or 1872. Two days later, on May 5, the Administrative Council formally approved the tariff as submitted by the Railway Bureau, which immediately

posted it for the general public. The official mileage between Sinagawa and Yokohama then announced was 15.62 miles.

The tariff read as follows :

Upper Class	Yen 1.50
Middle Class	1.00
Lower Class	.50

Children under four years were carried free, and between four and twelve years, at one half of the regular fares.

Hand baggage was limited to sixty *kun*¹ per person at Yen .50, and up to thirty *kun*, Yen .25.

When the service was first inaugurated there were only two trains each way from Sinagawa and Yokohama, one in the morning and the other in the afternoon. But two days later the service was increased to six round trips per day. On June 5, Kanagawa and Kawasaki Stations were opened to traffic, and at the same time the schedule and fares were revised. According to the statistics of that time, during the week between July 2 and 8, 1872, there were 692 passengers boarding at Sinagawa, 1,588 at Kawasaki, 5,178 at Kanagawa, and 7,030 at Yokohama, a total of 14,488 passengers, paying 4,941 81 yen. From July 8 the service was increased to eight round trips, and again on September 13 another round trip was added. Turumi Station was opened to traffic on September 12, 1872.

The entire line of 18 miles between Sinbasi and Yokohama was finally completed on September 29, 1872. Along the line were four stations, twenty-two bridges, four locomotive turn-tables, and four water tanks. It was a single-track line, a sixty-pound per yard rail being employed throughout. The total outlay had amounted to 2,725,776 yen, which covered the entire work from the initial construction up to June, 1875. The double tracking of the line was finally completed in May, 1881, ten years after the opening.

The inauguration of the first railway service in the country was no small affair. When the line was about to be formally opened the authorities took great care in performing various ceremonies planned for Tokyo and Yokohama, and also along the line between the two cities. The formal opening day was set for September 12, 1872. On that day His Majesty the Emperor was pleased to be present at the opening ceremonies held at Yokohama and Sinbasi Stations. There was much celebration both in Tokyo and Yokohama by the Government and the general public in commemorating one of the most significant events in the history of this country. Due to the many activities of this epochal occasion the train service was temporarily suspended on that day. On the following day,

¹ One *kun* is equal to approximately 1½ pounds.

September 13, the service between Sinbasi and Yokohama, the entire route, was formally inaugurated.

With the entire line open to traffic and registering unexpected success in spite of the many oppositions at the beginning, the Government was not only well satisfied with the operation of this new transportation service but also highly encouraged for its future. Thus, at the end of 1872 the rolling stock owned by the Japanese Government railway comprised 10 locomotives, 38 passenger coaches and 75 freight cars.

The ten locomotives were all tank-engines of the 21-ton and 23-ton classes, all manufactured in Great Britain. The passenger coaches were also made in Great Britain, each capable of accommodating 18 upper class, 22 middle class, and from 30 to 36 lower class passengers. The freight cars were of two kinds, the gondola and van, the former of the 6-ton and the latter of the 5-ton category. In 1874 two more British manufactured locomotives were purchased.

Along with the construction of the railway line, telegraph lines were also laid to connect the two cities of Tokyo and Yokohama, and simultaneous with the opening of the railway line, the telegraph service was inaugurated in May, 1872. This, however, was under the direct supervision of the Telegraph Bureau in the Department of Public Works, as the railway authorities did not see its immediate necessity since this form of communication was still in its infancy, and was little employed in the general operation of railways. But before long the Railway Bureau began to feel the need of its own wires, and in September, 1872, three telegraph lines were laid between Sinbasi and Yokohama for the exclusive use of the railways. In October, the original lines were formally transferred to the Railway Bureau, with the understanding that they should be responsible for expenditures in connection with repairs, while the telegraph office would supervise inspection on the various repairs, with the staff personnel belonging to the railway office. Finally on December 15, 1878, the telegraph services, both official and private, were inaugurated at the different railway stations.

Although in the beginning the authorities had not been without apprehensions as to the popularity of the railway service, it had, however, met with general applause by the public, proving more and more popular as the years went by. The traffic between Tokyo and Yokohama greatly increased and the number of train services was accordingly augmented. On March 1, 1873, ten services were added from both the Tokyo and Yokohama terminals, making in all twenty trips a day between the two cities. After a year traffic was still congested, and consequently on May 1, 1874, two more

additional trains were installed, and a year later the number of trains was further increased to thirteen from both terminals. In the following year, however, the service was adjusted according to seasonal demands, with more trains being run in spring and less in autumn. A few years later, in 1878 and again in 1881, it was noted that first and second class passengers began to dwindle, so that the authorities were obliged to work out such measures as issuing reduced return tickets. Several years later congestion necessitated the operation of express services and in March, 1882, the first express train was run between Tokyo and Yokohama, stopping only at Shinagawa and Kanagawa Stations. Hitherto, railway transportation was reserved for passengers only but with increasing demands for freight service the authorities finally decided in August, 1874, to open the line for that business, appointing the Mitsuigumi, for runner of the present day Mitsui concerns, to handle it at Shinbasi, Kanagawa and Yokohama Stations. The first freight trains were thus operated on September 15, 1873, twice daily at noon and 1 p.m. from Shinbasi and Yokohama Stations, respectively. The rate was fixed at ¥ 05 for five *kin* or fraction thereof, and ¥ 01 for every additional one *kin*.

Turning to the number of employees at the various stations we find the same story of a great expansion from small beginnings, a mere handful of men sufficing where thousands would be employed to-day. Shinbasi Station, in reality the principle station, had only 13 men under the station-master and Yokohama Station, the other terminus, only eight besides the station-master. With regard to the engineering staff, all were foreigners, excepting a few assistants, although seven years after the opening of the line, three Japanese locomotive engineers were officially appointed, and by the end of the same year, that is, in 1879, all the trains were operated by Japanese engineers. For a few years to come, foreign engineers continued to be employed in construction work, but since 1883 this, too, has been entirely in the hands of Japanese engineers.

Bearing in mind the insignificant beginnings of the railway system it is noteworthy that the authorities were enterprising enough to undertake as early as a year after its opening, the double-tracking of the entire line. Among the important engineering projects entailed were the bridges across the Rokugo River which were completed in November, 1887, at a total cost of 340,000 yen. And in May, 1881, the whole line from Shinbasi to Yokohama was made a double track. One of the immediate results was that passenger traffic was greatly increased and the authorities were now faced with the question of how to alleviate congestion. As a first

step, in 1881 the terminal stations of Sinbasi and Yokohama were enlarged; two new platforms, one of 360 feet and another of 460 feet, and a side track for freight cars were added to Yokohama, while in Sinbasi the shed was extended 120 feet and the square in front of the station was improved to facilitate better transfer connections with the Tokyo Basya Terudo Kaisya (Tokyo Horse-Car Company), which was permitted to make connections with the Government railways and the banks of the Siodome River was reconstructed to allow better intercourse between land and water transportation.

In the meantime the Department of Public Works was abolished, and the Railway Bureau was placed under the direct supervision of the Cabinet on December 22, 1885.

The issuing of commutation tickets was another important step in the progress of this young Government enterprise.

Mention has already been made of certain revisions in the tariff. From time to time further revisions had been made so that by 1886 the fares between Sinbasi and Yokohama stood as: ¥ .75 for first class, ¥ .45 for second class, and ¥ .25 for third class. An important revision from the socio-economic point of view, however, was the adoption of the commutation ticket system in January, 1886, although in the first place this was only applicable to first and second-class commuters between Sinbasi and Sinagawa or Yokohama. To-day more people take advantage of the commutation ticket system in Japan than in any other country.

In conclusion, the following table shows the operation of this new enterprise up to the fiscal year 1886, when 3,038,672 yen had been invested.

YEAR	PASSENGERS CARRIED	FREIGHT CARRIED	REVENUES	OPERATING EXPENSES	NET PROFIT
	No.	Tons	Yen	Yen	Yen
1872	495,078	457	176,393	113,465	62,928
1873	1,415,225	3,351	441,857	242,293	199,564
1874	1,549,428	17,249	442,963	239,043	204,920
1875 Jan. to June	895,188	10,369	219,480	128,095	91,385
1875 " " "	1,667,724	16,667	411,196	254,011	157,185
1876	1,584,162	27,092	344,904	217,937	126,967
1877	1,584,109	31,232	407,519	265,687	141,832
1878	1,606,048	33,465	430,342	293,901	136,441
1879	1,790,072	40,068	486,173	254,878	231,295
1880	2,084,221	42,521	565,692	252,684	313,008
1881	2,111,078	45,892	590,061	284,281	305,780
1882	2,213,151	55,976	710,629	453,812	256,817
1883	2,154,895	35,209	591,809	212,380	379,429
1884	1,963,174	61,116	571,692	213,370	358,322
1885	1,359,346	44,672	380,115	148,556	231,559
1886	1,740,442	14,913	313,824	180,053	133,771

TO STRENGTHEN THE NATIONAL GENERAL MOBILIZATION LAW

BOARD OF PLANNING

III

Another important revision for the strengthening of the national general mobilization legislation concerns the creation of agreements for control by the owners of undertakings with the approval of the competent authorities.

Article 17. *If it is necessary for the purpose of national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Order, cause the owners of undertakings of the same kind or of different kinds to apply for its approval in respect of the creation, alteration or cancellation of agreements for control of the undertakings concerned, or may order those who are parties to the control agreements or the owners of undertakings who are not parties to the same to conform thereto.*

Under the old provisions control was restricted to general mobilization undertakings, whereas the revised provisions extend it to cover any undertaking. The nature of control, however, remains the same as under the former provisions; that is to say, the Government, under its general direction and guidance, causes the owners to autonomously control their undertakings by creating agreements for control of prices, sales and production. Its essential points can be summed up as follows:

1. In the case where owners of undertakings of different kinds desire to autonomously create, alter or cancel the agreement for control of their undertakings, they are required to obtain the approval of the Government.

2. The Government may order the creation of agreements, or order the alteration or cancellation of such agreements as created by the owners of the undertakings.

3. When the agreements are thus created, the Government may order not only the owners of undertakings who are parties to the agreements, but also the non-party owners to conform to the agreements.

Organizations for Control of Undertakings

The revised provisions of Article 17, as explained in the foregoing,

do not affect the ownership of undertakings, but seeks their compliance with the control agreement based on the general policy of the Government. Control is intensified, however, by virtue of the revised provisions of Article 18, which read :

Article 18. If it is necessary for the purpose of national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, order owners of undertakings of the same kind or their organizations, of different kind, to establish organizations or corporations with the object of controlling their undertakings or of managing undertakings for control purposes.

The organization to be established in accordance with the order mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be a juristic person

If any person who has been ordered to establish an organization or corporation, as provided in paragraph 1, fails to do so, the Government may take necessary procedures with respect to the drafting of articles of incorporation and otherwise concerning the establishment of the organization or corporation.

When the organization mentioned in paragraph 1 has been formed and established, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, cause those who are eligible for membership to become the members thereof

The Government may cause the organization mentioned in paragraph 1 to apply for approval in respect of the creation, alteration or cancellation of control regulations concerning the undertakings of its members (including, as hereinafter understood, members of member organizations), or may order the institution or alteration of control regulations, or may order the members, or those who are eligible for membership, to conform to the control regulations of the organizations.

Necessary matters relating to the organization or corporation mentioned in paragraph 1 shall be prescribed by Imperial Ordinance.

Thus the new provisions strengthen the control in the following four points :

1 Not only general mobilization undertakings but also owners of all undertakings and their associations are made subject to Government orders concerning the control.

2 The Government may order the establishment not only of associations of the owners but also of organizations in general as well as corporations which are most appropriate for carrying out the control.

3. Such organizations or corporations not only may exist in the interest of control but also may perform undertakings for the purpose of control.

4 The Government may order those eligible for membership in the control organizations compulsorily to join such organizations

(paragraph 4), and otherwise order them to conform to the control regulations of such organizations (paragraph 5)

The adoption of the term "organization" in the revised provisions has an important bearing on the nature of control bodies, in that the Government is enabled to order the establishment of the organizations which operate in accordance with national purposes instead of that of the associations of the owners of undertakings whose primary purpose is to promote their own interests.

In other words, the new provisions have opened the way for the Government to readjust, rearrange and perfect economic organization in such a manner as to enable the planned operation of national defence economy with the united efforts of the Government and people.

Other Provisions

As already explained, revisions or additions of certain provisions necessarily call for the further supplementing of new provisions. Articles 18 (2) and 18 (3) are of such nature.

Article 18 (2). *When orders have been issued with regard to transfer of equipment or rights or the investment thereof in [other undertakings] in accordance with the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 2, or transfer of undertakings in accordance with the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 3, necessary matters relating to the succession to obligations of the assignors or investors and the disposal of the security shall be prescribed by Imperial Ordinance.*

The addition of the present Article is necessitated by the addition of Articles 16 (2) and 16 (3). When the owner of an undertaking is ordered by the Government to transfer the equipment and accessory rights to another person, or invest them in another undertaking, or to transfer the entire business to another person, cases may arise where the general principles of the civil and commercial codes cannot adequately be applied to obligations incurred or to mortgages created by the former owner. For these cases special measures, such as to provide for the transfer of the obligations to the new owner and to retain the invested or transferred equipment as part of the factory estate in case such estate was created by the former, are necessary. These measures will be prescribed by Imperial Ordinance with a view to dispelling any apprehensions among the parties interested as to the discharging of obligations and to counteracting any legal acts defeating the purpose of the Government orders issued in accordance with Articles 16 (2) and 16 (3).

Article 18 (3). *With regard to transfer of equipment or rights to, or investment thereof in [other undertakings] in accordance with the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 2, transfer of undertakings or amalgamation of juristic persons in accordance with the provisions of Article 16, paragraph 3, or the organization or corporations to be established in accordance with the provisions of Article 18, paragraph 1 or paragraph 3, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, grant them exceptions in respect of the calculation of the standard of assessment or may make deduction or exemption of taxes*

This Article likewise consists of the provisions supplementary to Articles 16 (2), 16 (3) and 18 (2). The transfer and investment of equipment and rights, the transfer and merger of undertakings, and the establishment of organizations and corporations provided in those Articles necessarily give rise to new situations in taxation. Since, however, these changes in the taxable status are brought about by the orders of the State, exceptions in taxation should be accorded to the parties affected. As was stated by the finance authorities at the last session of the Diet, special privileges in respect of taxation should be granted to the organizations and corporations established in accordance with the provisions of Article 18 as in the case of semi-official corporations.

Article 19. *If it is necessary for the purpose of national general mobilization in time of war, the Government may, as prescribed by Imperial Ordinance, give necessary orders with respect to prices, carriage charges, storage, premiums for insurance, rentals, charges for workmanship, repairs and other payments in the nature of property.*

This Article forms the basic provisions for control of prices, upon which the Ordinance for Control of Prices, Etc., the Ordinance for Control of Farm Rent, the Ordinance for Control of Land and House Rent, the Ordinance for Control of Prices of Land and Buildings, Etc. and the Ordinance for Temporary Control of Prices of Farm Land are being effectively enforced. It has been found, however, that the old provisions, aiming at the control only of prices, carriage charges, storage, premiums for insurance, rentals and charges for workmanship, have resulted in leaving unrestricted another important factor for determining prices. Hence the revision of the Article.

The term "other payments in the nature of property" referred to in this Article includes, among other things, charges for labour, services, lodging, commissions and admission fees, which will be prescribed by Imperial Ordinance.

Other important revisions relate to the penal provisions which serve greatly for strengthening the law, and which are self-explanatory.

Article 31 (2) Persons coming within any of the following numbers shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding 10 years or a fine of not more than fifty thousand (50,000) yen.

(1) Those who have violated orders issued in accordance with the provisions of Article 8.

(2) Those who have violated orders issued in accordance with the provisions of Article 19.

Article 43: If a person who is, or formerly was, in public service, has disclosed, or made secret use of, secrets of the business of an individual or a juristic person that he learned through his performance of duties in accordance with the provisions of the present law, he shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding two years or a fine of not more than two thousand (2,000) yen

If a person who is, or formerly was, an officer or employee of an organization or corporation established for the purpose of controlling undertakings in accordance with the provisions of Article 18, paragraph 1 or paragraph 3, or of a juristic person or any other organization controlling undertakings in accordance with orders issued on the basis of the provisions of the present law, has disclosed, or made secret use of, secrets of the business of an individual or a juristic person that he learned through his performance of duties, he shall be similarly punished as the person mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

Article 46: If an officer or employee of an organization or company established for the purpose of controlling undertakings in accordance with the provisions of Article 18, paragraph 1 or paragraph 3, or of a juristic person or any other organization controlling undertakings in accordance with orders issued on the basis of the provisions of the present law, in connection with his duties for control, has accepted, demanded or promised to receive a bribe, he shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding two years; and if on the same account he has committed a dishonest act, or failed to perform a proper act, he shall be punished with penal servitude not exceeding five years.

The bribe received as referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be forfeited. If it is impossible to forfeit all or part thereof, an amount corresponding thereto shall be collected.

FROM JAPANESE POINTS OF VIEW

Under this general title, the TOKYO GAZETTE reviews books and other publications representing Japanese views of life and the world.

GENDAI-INDO RON (Contemporary India) By K. Takashi Itoh. Tokyo: Yamato Shoten, 1941. pp. 285. Yen 1.50.

Since the outbreak of the present European War, the trend of Indian affairs has become a serious problem for Britain, and, moreover, with the establishment of the sphere of co-prosperity throughout Greater Asia under the leadership of Japan, the position of India is being investigated with renewed interest.

With Japanese Indian relations dating back to early times, India is no new subject for the Japanese people, but even so the general public in Japan today have but scant knowledge of matters concerning India, much less of her recent political and economic conditions. This is largely due to the lack of suitable material giving reliable information concerning present-day India. In view of this, *Gendai-Indo Ron*, a new book by Mr. K. Takashi Itoh, is to be strongly recommended as a publication extremely timely and valuable, a book which has deservedly won the distinction of having been officially recommended by the Department of Education.

The author starts off with a geographic description of the Indian Empire and goes on to discuss problems concerning the population and religions of India. He then analyzes the Indians' movements for independence, giving biographical sketches of some of their leaders. The author also remarks in detail upon Indian politics and comments upon Anglo-Indian relations, and after describing India's tendency regarding the War, proceeds to deal with the future of the Independence Movement. His style is commentating rather than narrative and his opinions reveal a penetrating insight. The book is intelligible, consistent and compact, with a wide variety of new and far-reaching problems contained in a book of only 285 pages.

Having studied at the London School of Economics and Political Science, University of London, the author is an authority on affairs relating to the British Empire and has already published excellent books entitled *Gendai-Ikokun Ron (Contemporary Britain)* and *Ei-Teikoku-Oyobi-Fukokuzei (The British Empire and Britisbers)*, companion

books to the book under review. The preface reveals the author's desire to make the Japanese people more familiar with the British Empire and especially we find the chapters on Anglo-Indian Relations, the Independence Movement and the Future of India discussed with a deep knowledge such as is rarely displayed by modern Japanese writers on world affairs.

For instance, the author points out that the general Japanese public have hitherto tended to think only of British India when speaking of India and he therefore elucidates the structure of the Native States within the Indian Empire. He rejects the one-sided and easy-going view that the political tendencies of the Native States and the All-India Muslim League, etc., are all the natural outcome of Great Britain's "divide-and-rule" policy. The result of the tendencies of these groups is, in fact, that while seeming to follow rather a pro-British policy, the degree of their pro-British sentiments continuously varies to suit their own convenience. Again the author reveals a shrewd knowledge in the stress he places upon the importance of Burma in connection with the Government of India in the light of the recent trends of Anglo-Indian trade and other issues.

Commenting on the recent development of industries in India, the author writes :

"The prospects of British trade with India are fraught with very pessimistic indications. Native capitalists in British India are exerting all possible efforts to place their system of production on a secure basis, and, therefore, the imports of manufactured goods into India are gradually decreasing in volume. In 1931, India put into force an emergency import tariff to cope with the financial crisis then prevailing, and this measure had the effect of promoting the industrial development of India to a considerable extent.

"Furthermore, the National Congress Party carried on a movement mainly aimed at boycotting British as well as Japanese goods, launching a campaign of 'Buy Indian.' This movement apparently constituted another factor conducing to reduce imports of manufactured goods and thus large numbers of factories were established to manufacture such goods as cigarettes, matches, electric bulbs, rubber tires, soap, paints, chemical preparations, etc.

"In the meantime, the Congress Party carried an official party decision calling for the organization of a planning committee for an All India industrialization, and since then concrete plans to this end have already been made public in the Province of Bombay and in the United Provinces. Among other things, these plans embrace the building of necessary equipment for supplying cheap electric

power, the training of technicians and the subsidization of facilities for industrializing India, and efforts in this direction are already under way.

"Mention may also be made of a plan favouring the building of an automobile factory in the vicinity of Bombay. In 1937 India imported approximately 30,000 motor vehicles, valued at some 110 million yen, including 17,000 motor cars and 13,000 motor lorries. Of these, the motor cars came mostly from Britain and the motor buses and lorries from the United States. The import duty on motor vehicles in India is 30 per cent *ad valorem* for those from England and 37 1/2 per cent for those from foreign countries, these duty rates being regarded as conducive to fostering the automobile industry in India. Apparently, however, India is averse to importing capital from Great Britain or any other country in spite of the fact that she is acutely in need of capital for new enterprises.

"Within the scheme for a universal industrialization of India, iron and steel industries are receiving special encouragement, and the Tattar Steel Foundry at Jamshedpur, 150 miles west of Calcutta, is said to boast the largest productive capacity of all similar factories throughout the British Commonwealth, the unit cost of production there being reputed to be the lowest throughout the entire world.

"As for coal, India is estimated to consume approximately 20 million tons annually, while deposits within India are said to be sufficient to last 60 years if first grade products alone are used, and 120 years if the nation is to depend on second grade.

"What Mahatma Gandhi is striving for is the revival of local handicraft industries, which is mainly meant to assist in relieving the large numbers of peasants who become unemployed from February to May every year. Being aware of the manifold shortcomings attendant upon modern industries, Gandhi is also seriously opposed to the expansion of collective industries.

"Time was when the tax proceeds from opium sales in India amounted to 100 million yen annually, an important portion of the revenue of the Government of India. Having since been deprived of this financial resource, the Government has naturally come to depend more and more upon customs revenue, which can be increased comparatively easily whenever necessary, although the salt tax and the income tax can also be depended upon as important sources of revenue.

"In this connection it must be noted that the more the British authorities of the Indian Government have tried to thwart the aspirations of Indians for complete self-government, the more they have had to contribute to social welfare by way of pacifying

anti-British repercussions in public opinion. The natural result is that the expenditure of the Government has grown apace, thereby making it imperative to increase the revenue from import duties and the income tax, and this trend has inevitably caused the development of British industries having connections with India to mark time or even to deteriorate. The rapid rise in income tax rates was such that the Sassoon family, who had prospered for four generations in Bombay, finally made up their mind in 1930 to move their headquarters to China for the very reason that the income tax in India had become too much for them.

"Faced with this situation, some of the British manufacturers, despairing of India as an export market, started to open branch factories within the Indian tariff wall. This trend, however, is likely to involve the following results: firstly, an acute antagonism will inevitably arise between the agricultural and the undeveloped industrial interests, who form the majority of the Indian population; secondly, the Indian Government authorities, who have hitherto depended on the customs for as much as 60 per cent of their annual revenue, are bound to be faced with a financial crisis; and thirdly, the stoppage of imports cannot but lead to the collapse of India's own export trade, so long as the prevailing international economic situation remains unchanged."

Then, taking up the question of to what degree Great Britain and India depend upon each other the author remarks in part: "At any rate, Britain depends on India to the extent of only 6.3 per cent of her entire import and export trade, while India depends upon Britain for 31.3 per cent of the entire foreign trade. Thus India is dependent upon Britain's goods to the extent of several times the amount that Britain depends upon Indian goods, although India's dependence upon Britain may partly be accounted for by the pressure brought to bear upon India by Britain.

"On the basis of this fundamental fact, some of the Indian intelligentsia have declared, 'With the industries of India in the shape they are at present, even if India were allowed independence immediately, Indian economy would still have to depend subserviently upon some other foreign market in place of Britain. In other words, India cannot be expected to effect real independence unless the country is enabled to stand on her own feet so far as her own conditions of economic demand and supply are concerned.' Such a contention as this incidentally runs counter to Gandhi's policy which encourages the hand-spinning of cotton, and frowns upon any modern industrialization of the Indian nation

"The world seems to be paying little or no attention to the increasingly important place that Burma has come to play in Anglo-Indian relations since she attained the status of quasi-dominion in April, 1937, being separated from India by virtue of a partial enforcement of the new Constitution of India. This fact is worthy of our accurate cognizance. At present any deficiency in India's supply of home-produced rice, her staple food, is always completely made good by importing Burmese rice as, for instance, in 1938, when India imported 1,200,000 tons of Burmese rice. India also depends on Burma for the supply of two-thirds of the 350 million gallons of various minerals annually consumed in India. This tendency of India's dependence on Burma for supplementing her shortage of staple food and for the source of life for modern Indian industries, is becoming more and more pronounced as the international situation grows from bad to worse. But there is no denying the fact that Burma, harbouring uneasiness from various causes, still remains absolutely under British control, and that Britain holds the key to manipulate India from behind through the medium of Burma, a country comparatively easy to govern. For this very reason, Burma must be regarded as the key position, with the possibility of disturbing Anglo-Indian relations."

Regarding the question of the Untouchables the author states:

"... The emancipation of the Untouchables who have hitherto been treated in so inhumane a manner is the aim of a widespread social movement now afoot not only among the followers of Hinduism but also throughout India in general. It is to this end that Mahatma Gandhi is devoting most of his efforts. In this connection it is contended that, in order to attain independence for a united India, the elevation of the Untouchables to the ordinary social level within the Hindu community must needs be effected first of all, to be followed by the emancipation of the various castes within the Hindu community and the unification between Hindus and Moslems in British India, the two latter measures being considered indispensable in attaining the ultimate objective through a close cooperation between British India and Native States. In other words, it may be said that the age of a Hindu All-Indian independence will never arrive without complete emancipation, first, for the Untouchables, and, second, for the various Hindu castes."

As for the future of the Independence Movement the author writes:

"A complete political and economic independence for India, is

far more easily said than done. Even if India were now by any chance enabled to take advantage of the crisis confronting Britain to shake off its yoke of British rule, the immediate outcome would be a spell of chaotic civil strife among various native influences and would never bring about the independence of even British India, much less an All India independence.

"An eloquent indication for such a possibility as this was afforded between October and November in 1939, when the Cabinets of the eight Provinces controlled by the National Congress Party resigned *en bloc* in keeping with a negative anti British movement. On this occasion, the Muslims carried out elaborate demonstrations by sponsoring Emancipation Day in many places, ostensibly for the purpose of offering thanks to the 'God who had saved the Muslims in the eight Provinces from the oppression of the National Congress Party Cabinets'. As may be seen from this instance, the feud between the Hindus and Muslims is faced with a deplorable future.

"Theoretically speaking, however, the unification of all the different religions in India is not necessarily impossible, there being a good chance that if any atheistic movement should come to India, the Hindus and Muslims, who are both believers although they believe in different deities, will cooperate with each other closely in common defence against the atheists. Thus an overwhelming influence may be expected to be brought into action throughout India in the event of an imminent menace of Communistic penetration, when the National Congress Party, the All-India Muslim League and other organizations would go definitely conservative to combat such a menace.

"However, the headquarters of the Communist Party in Soviet Russia are too careful to reveal their atheism in India unwittingly, and the communists prefer to plant their influence among the radical elements of the National Congress Party, while it is more practical that the Soviet Union would try to reach the Indian Ocean through the Middle East rather than through India. The recurring rumours of a Soviet plan to penetrate into India are being attributed by the British to the alleged German and Italian propaganda designed to cause uneasiness in Great Britain. These rumours, however, are in some quarters explained as emanating from British sources for the strategic purpose of inspiring fear among Indians in order to facilitate the continued British rule of India. Be that as it may, the fact is that any Soviet penetration into India is not so realistic as the general public is led to believe. Rather the time when Soviet Russia will make an attempt at sovietizing India will be when civil disorder is rife in India."

"It follows, therefore, that the National Congress Party's anti-British activities will only serve as a prologue to the Independence Movement as a whole. Will the Hindus finally be able to attain a unity among their own various sects and accomplish independence for British India by overruling other minority religious communities, or will the country be divided between a Hindu India and a Muslim India? In any case, to all appearance there is still some time to go before the curtain rises on the main stage of the Indian Independence Movement."

Further commenting on the presentiments of British observers on the Indian problem, the author writes :

"In the meanwhile, the British have undergone various experiences in connection with the governing of India and the handling of the political anti-British and independence movements since the outbreak of the first World War. They are, therefore, able to deal with these problems in a comparatively easy spirit, but they are quite helpless in the face of the never ceasing natural trend for the development of Indian industries and for the independence of Indian economy, which are much less ostentatious than political problems but of more radical importance. British observers are unanimously agreed in foreseeing the possibility of an All-India independence industrially or economically rather than politically.

"To cite the instance of the cotton spinning industry, which is representative of the various industries of India, the number of people employed in spinning and the cotton used have increased during the 1881-1938 period as follows :

	<i>Workers Employed</i>	<i>Cotton Used</i>
1881	50,000	380,000 bales
1913	250,000	2,100,000 "
1929	350,000	2,160,000 "
1938	440,000	3,660,000 "

"The combined output of various kinds of spun yarns in recent years and the percentage of exports for each year are tabulated below :

	<i>Total output</i>	<i>Exports</i>
1935	3,600 million yards	39 per cent
1936	3,600 " "	33 " "
1937	4,100 " "	39 " "

"An exchange quota system is now in force between India on the one hand and Japan and Great Britain on the other for raw cotton and cotton goods, and, therefore, so long as India wants to export large

quantities of cotton, she has to import correspondingly large quantities of cotton goods. Meanwhile, however, India is also obliged to export considerable quantities of products of her own cotton industries, the result being that as much as nearly 60 per cent of the products of India's spinning industry is being exported for consumption in various markets including Burma, British Malaya, Ceylon, Egypt, Nigeria, Iran, Arabian native countries, Iraq, Tanganyika, Mauritius, the Bahrain Islands and Aden. This fact strikes me as affording a hint far more concrete and important in attaining actual independence than the political independence movement. . . ."

The following is a translation of part of what the author suggests as a guide for Japan's basic India policy :

"It has been Japan's principle to strive for the sake of the co-existence and co-prosperity of the entire human race, and this includes, of course, the people of India. But while our desire to better the world is constant, the attitude of other countries towards Japan changes from year to year. When dealing with these people, therefore, we must make a day by-day study of their reactions to the march of events in the world and their attitude towards Japan, and explain to them our original ideal in such a way as to fit well into their psychology. Then, rather than wasting efforts in continuously reiterating our principles, we should see that our actions are such that they will spontaneously come to admire Japan.

"Even a worm is said to turn. However backward the people we are going to deal with may be, they are bound to feel indignant if we behave as if we were commanding them to look up to Japan as their leader. Nothing would be a more foolish attitude than this in carrying out our policy toward India and other southern Asiatic countries, and I am firmly convinced of the need for paying careful attention to this point. . . ."

NORO KOTI (NORO HEIGHT). *By Captain Sakae Kusaba. Tokyo: The Masu Shobo, 1941. PP. 331 1.50 yen.*

This inspiring book embodies the personal experiences of Captain Sakae Kusaba of the Imperial Japanese Army, who fought, throughout the Nomonhan Incident in the Manchoukuo Outer Mongolian border area in the summer of 1939, in nearly all phases of modern warfare as an artillery battery commander. For its distinguished service the unit under his command won the highest honour Japanese soldiers can be awarded, a letter of approval from the Commander in Chief of the Kwantung Army.

In writing this valuable human document, this army officer in the active service, busy with his military duties, evidently had no leisure to polish up his style; he describes his experiences at the front in plain language. However, born in the land where from olden times brave soldiers have left many masterpieces in literature, and nurtured in these high traditions, the young officer has developed an unpretentious but elevated style of his own. Little wonder that, when it was published in February, it was acclaimed by the general public, and by April 250 editions had been reprinted.

The following are only a few extracts taken from the book. The readers will doubtless join the reviewer in reaffirming the truth that a brave soldier always is tender-hearted and keenly appreciates the beauties of nature and humanity. He was only 27 years old when he was wounded at the front.

June 29, Thursday.

It is clear again. My eyes ache from lack of sleep and the piercing direct rays of the sun. The number of enemy tanks and armoured cars in front of our lines has increased considerably. The decisive battle may be either today or tomorrow. We may not long remain in this position.

June 30, Friday.

At 2 p.m. we finally received a wireless order from the Kobayashi Unit to prepare for manoeuvring.

Enemy forces seem to be stirring. The main unit of our army appears to be making a big circuit at the enemy's right attempting to annihilate the units which had crossed the border at the confluence of the Khalhar and Holsten Rivers.

Until late into the night I attended to odd duties, and after falling into a doze I was suddenly awaked by the cry of the sentry.

"Enemy tanks!"

Out into the open I jumped from the tent, and there found several soldiers assembled in front of the communication trench and intently watching the darkness before them. They said that they had heard the clattering noise of caterpillars of enemy tanks crossing the grassy field. Soldiers took their respective posts, but nothing ensued, so I made an inspection of the positions.

It was a brilliant night with the stars twinkling all over the sky. The atmosphere here in Hulunbair must be lucidly transparent so that even the stars appeared like the "end of the earth" and sparkled fantastically overhead. My men seemed to have gone to sleep. There was not a sound from them. . .

Tomorrow the entire army would finally advance. Our unit

is to occupy the 733 5 metre hill some six kilometres south of Mr Obonee at 5:30 at dawn, and cover the left flank of the main force of the army advancing toward the Khalhar River, following the defile due north from our position.

The clash has finally closed in. Tomorrow is the day

"We have now come to execute our final duty toward the Emperor and the country" I said to myself. All the stirring memories of those exciting days from the time we were ordered to the front up to the day we had arrived at Chiangchunmiao began to revive in me as I recalled those memorable hours.

On the night of the mobilization I was at the headquarters as weekly commandant. While keenly absorbed in the reports coming in moment by moment from the direction of Chiangchunmiao, we at last received the first order to "despatch troops," that was to make history. Instantaneously I felt my heart throbbing heavily, and as if struck by lightning there was a strange emotion running in me while I stood there aghast. The highest honour as a soldier had now come, I thought, then my heart began to leap unceasingly. Without losing a moment I called the orderly, rushed telephone calls, and in the pitch darkness assembled my unit ready to leave.

Completely armed we then paid our respects toward the East where our Emperor, and people stay, and without a word or any noise we started for the front at 5:45 a.m. praying for victory.

When I thought that I would not be able to see the place and the surroundings again, those things which merely existed until today with us, the trees, the grass, the herbs and everything now came emotionally into my heart. Even to this day all the passing scenes vividly appear before me one after another: the day when we saw a large river flowing through the plain of Hailar gently lulling its water filled with lumber from the forest in the north, the torrential rain on the 24th when the heaven and earth were totally blackened, our men drenched to the skin, and quite unexpectedly a group of tanks as if wading through the downpour disappeared into the horizon; the night we encamped in the pine forest not far from Chiangchunmiao after advancing far into the fighting zone, the automobile corps which came from the front to report the emergency of our line, the immediate despatch of one of the units; the hours we got lost in the grassy field on our way to Chiangchunmiao on the 26th with but hard-tack to keep away hunger, and some of the other bitter experiences.

The above has been selected from the chapter called "Up to Engagement."

The following is another selection from the next chapter entitled "Annihilating Tanks."

The distance between our Commander's car and the enemy's tanks was already only 30 metres ! " Shall we fire ? No. Was there any order ? " While I hesitated the tanks mercilessly advanced with full speed onto the line of our cars trying to dodge the frontal attack.

It was truly a fight for life and death ; the one trying to escape and the other pursuing its prey

The advantages of the ground were against the automobiles and the distance had now shortened to only 15 metres.

The next moment there was only the atrocious slaughter left.

The distance was 700 metres !

The fourth squad (Tsuda Squad) was an excellent mark

The question now remaining was . . . to destroy the tanks. or . . . to damage the automobiles.

It was at this very moment.

" Continuous fire ! " the command came out of my mouth in voluntarily. And roaringly the guns reported. I watched

Did I not see the leading tank nearest to the automobiles catch fire with a peculiar groaning growl, that immediately turned into a great fire ?

" Banzai ! Banzai ! "

Repeated shouts of banzais that almost deafened the vicinity came from my men.

Being so accurate with our fire I could hardly believe that I was my own and surely doubted whether some divine being had come into me.

The supernatural power which we can not experience under ordinary circumstances had come to me at that time without the loss of a moment and made me give the command " Continuous fire ! " It is far too intricate for me to decipher that particular situation that makes me awe-stricken even as I now recall the scene.

There is nothing for me to do but to thank God

But it was no time for us to look on with pleasure

The next moment the rest of the 15 odd tanks turned their course and began to manoeuvre against us. . . Within 500 metres every one of the enemy tanks was destroyed. . .

" Fire ! " I ordered, followed by a boom from the gun. It was directed against the only one left unburned and in which there were several Soviet soldiers. Just before firing, one of the men jumped out of the tank and hid himself in the grassy field. Of

course, we did not want to waste our shots, nevertheless, we did want to get our man so a shrapnel was sent after him. After a while he rose, but soon went down again with a moan. His right leg must have been shot. We walked over to him and found a pale but smiling face pointing at his bloody foot. My kind-hearted soldiers forgetting the fighting of only a minute before ran over to the Soviet soldier and began to bandage the wound. "Is this the place?" "Hurt? Oh, pretty bad, isn't it?" "Jolly old fellow, he's smiling." These were words exchanged among them as they gave first aid to the wounded leg. He was not more than twenty years old, and seemed to have come from the farm. If circumstances permitted he might have been sent to the rear as a prisoner, but under such conditions when we were actively engaged fighting enemy tanks we could not be bothered with him. We gave him a little water and some hard-tack and left him in the open field.

In the chapter called "Trench Life" the following episodes are told:

The sentiment we feel while counting the stars at the front and making us yearningly nostalgic for our homes is something wistfully romantic. And it was also among our limited pleasures to call on friends in other companies. But as soon as the night falls in this vast Hulunbair desert everything is veiled in darkness, no trees, no rivers, no hills, just a plain blackness and nothing to hold on to. Many a humorous tale is told of these nights at the front.

One night a young second-lieutenant from the neighbouring company called on us and toward midnight he left us. When he left we gave him the direction.

"The headquarters is in this direction. You will find a large defile and your destination is about two hundred metres to the right."

Not thirty minutes afterward some one called us, "Is this the headquarters?" It was the second-lieutenant. He repeated his journey three times before he was able to reach his destination.

At night Soviet soldiers often wandered into our lines humming exotic tunes. The largest haul was on the night of the 10th when eleven of them walked right up to the trench of the Sakai Unit, and they were all made prisoners.

Men were not the only ones going astray. Horses, too, lost their track in the darkness to disturb soldiers in their sweet dreams.

In another section of the same chapter the author tells of meeting with his younger brother, thus:

On the morning of the 19th my brother, Hiroshi, who had followed my footsteps through the middle school, Military Academy, and even in this artillery corps, quite unceremoniously called on me. And strangely enough he had also been put in command of one of the artillery batteries in the same detachment here on the Mongolian desert.

"Ah, you certainly look fine."

Although it was only twenty days since we last saw each other, the interval seemed like two or three years. When I asked him, he said that he had been ordered as a reconnoitring officer and had stopped on his way to the front line.

"Brother, I hear you made a fine showing rescuing the headquarters on the 3rd, everybody is talking about your unit. It's worth a drink."

"Well, darn it! We also have your news."

"Any way, it's jolly good to see each other well and fit, isn't it? This may be the last, but let's do our best for our country."

"By the way, if you happen to have some whisky, will you pass 'em around?"

I knew my brother's thirst for whisky, so I promised to send him some if I happened to come across any. We talked and talked but there was no end.

"Well, I wish you luck, and goodbye," he said. And we held our hands tightly together.

"I wish you the same, sayonara," I returned as he saluted and walked away into the drizzling rain.

After about ten steps he suddenly turned back, and simultaneously we smiled at each other.

That was the first and the last time we met at the front, though after that we often exchanged letters and comfort kits whenever we had the opportunity, but even then, when the situation became more acute, we lost track of each other.

The following account is given in the chapter "Water and Plain."

Presently I saw Second-Lieutenant Hashimoto kneeling before the grave of his comrade, Second-Lieutenant Hiakutake, and silently placing a bouquet of wild flowers on it. He often searched two or three hundred metres and sometimes even five to six hundred metres in the open field to fetch wild peonies and wild roses and without the aid of soldiers would decorate them in the soda water bottle placed in front of the grave. And he always knelt before the grave and mumbled something as if reciting a prayer. I forgot to say that he is the eldest son of the famous Bairin-ji Temple in Kurame,

and being born of a Buddhist family reciting sutras before ashes and performing services was his profession. The setting sun shone brightly on him and the surroundings made a picture as if the evening bells would come ringing from the hills rising beyond. Yes, it was exactly like Millet's "Angelus," I said to myself, and still continued to watch the humble scene before me. Just then our aged Sergeant looking weak with a shovel on his shoulder appeared on the little hillock not far away and heavily traced his shoes over the loose sandy ground. He was another of those attacked by acute dysentery. He would find time between shells to go to the other side of the hillock with his shovel.

There he was again, staggering his way over the mound before Second-Lieutenant Hashimoto, who was busily engaged in reciting sutras in front of the grave. We could see him in his gray moustache and beard left untouched since coming to the front, his boyish figure and round shoulders sorrowfully dragging his feet over the sand not even knowing that we were around.

The chapter called "Nomonhan Apartment" gives us another phase of life at the front.

Next to enemy shells it was the scarcity of provisions and rice that threatened us at the front. And the heat, cold, mosquitoes, flies and the rest of the uncomfortable and bitter experiences at Barshagal even now come flickeringly before my eyes.

But I have come to know that human instinct and habituation can make us adapt ourselves to any standard of living and environment. Although there are many bitter memories, on the other hand there are also other recollections more pleasurable in the war itself. After going through many trying hours hovering between life and death, sometimes almost on the verge of death, we had become quite used to the presence of our enemy, even ignoring bursting shells, the progress of battles, and fortune, and would often come to live in a situation which some might term "a perfect impersonal attitude." Under such circumstances the incessant reports of rifles, machine guns and field guns sounded like lullabies to us. And the downpour of machine-gun fire from enemy planes were but ordinary occurrences to us. And in this way there arose in us that pleasurable mental state that made us enjoy life at the front, though having wagered our lives there.

They say "necessity is the mother of invention" and here at the front even in the hardship from the lack of provisions, when we all come together there are many wise ideas born among us. Among them is our bath. To the Japanese who are known for their

cleanliness, if they can not cleanse the dirt and perspiration from the battle-fields even once in a long while, it is extremely hard on them. Therefore, one of the wise ones among us coined the idea of cutting the gasoline drum, longitudinally, after the gasoline had been emptied from it, thus making two tubs, each capable of holding one man with ease. In this way a little water is quite sufficient to make a bath, when water is scarce at the front. Still it is not uncommon to fetch water from shell holes at the rear or gather rain-water. On such an occasion the bath is the best treat for us. The thrill we feel throughout the body when we go into the bath dog tired is almost indescribably delectable. And what is more, we get into the bathtub even in the midst of enemy fire, and do we not get a thrill out of it! Everybody seems to think alike and no one forgets to go into the tub with his helmet.

In the last chapter which the author calls the "Forlorn Advance," he gives a vivid account of the moment before he was wounded. It reads:

The enemy! The enemy turned to counter-attack. I doubted a little and unconcernedly focussed my binocular on the grassy plain not far away. Then quite unexpectedly I plainly saw a small middle-aged Soviet soldier fast aiming his gun at me from the trench directly in front of us.

The distance between us was less than 20 metres! Under the long visor of his helmet I saw ferocious eyes without a wink aiming at my chest.

"He might get me." The sharp sensation that might be called the sixth sense hovering at the gateway between life and death came flashing into me like a spark.

Immediately I tried to cover myself. But it was too late. Suddenly I felt a tremendous shock as if struck by a board crushing the bones of my chest to pieces. And with that shock I clearly felt my body making an abrupt turn.

(The rapid-firer. I knew by the shock that it was from a rapid-firer. If it were from an infantry rifle it would not have been so great).

Without any reason these thoughts came to me at that time. That was the end. Consciousness left me far into the other world.

I did not know how long it was after that, but gradually I began to feel within the depth of my sub-consciousness, the rustling sound of the scissors cutting my coat. Everything appeared as if happening in a dream. (Ah, I must be undergoing first aid at the field-hospital). I began to think like a faint vision. . .

"Captain! Captain!"

It was Second-Lieutenant Hashimoto's voice. He called, and called, but I could only hear his voice running away from me far into the distance. As his voice became fainter and fainter I felt a light warm breeze stroking my cheeks, and my body seemed to fall deeper and deeper somewhere into eternal space.

My brother's death occurred the following day, on August 29, or the very last day of action in the Nomonhan Incident.

SITUATION IN CHINA



RECENT IMPORTANT OPERATIONS

ARMY PRESS SECTION, IMPERIAL HEADQUARTERS

FOLLOWING surprise landings at key points on the coast of Central and South China in February, March and April in organized efforts to destroy the supply routes for Chungking, the Japanese forces started vigorous operations in North, Central and South China in May, striking terror into the Chungking armies. Thus, operations in the Chuki¹ sector, which were started on April 14 by our detachments, from Hangchow, capital of Chekiang Province, were successfully continued into May, and our counter-offensive launched, on May 11, against enemy troops which had attempted the recapture of the Hongkong-Shaokwan route frustrated their attempts, dealing them heavy losses. On the other hand, our forces in North China started, on May 7, an encirclement movement against the enemy forces, some 200,000 strong, in Southern Shansi Province and Northern Honan Province. The battle in that sector lasted till after the middle of May. Summer had already come to China, with the sun blazing in the daytime but with the thermometer dropping sharply after nightfall. Marching through clouds of yellow dust, peculiar to China, and fighting against epidemics as well as against the enemy, our forces went through hardships and privations which simply defy description.

Terrain of Southern Shansi and Northern Honan Provinces

The terrain in Southern Shansi and Northern Honan Provinces, where one of the severest battles since the outbreak of the hostilities was fought, is a very difficult one. In Southern Shansi Province, the Chungtiao mountain range, whose peaks are all more than 1,000 metres above sea-level, runs parallel to the Yellow River from west to east. Big fissures open everywhere, and there are no modern roads. The river-beds are mostly used as roads, so that movements of troops are seriously hampered, all our troops, from divisional commanders downward, marched on foot. During the dry season, the rivers particularly in Southern Shansi Province have little or no water running, but once a heavy rain

¹ Some 45 kilometres south of Hangchow

falls, swirling waters rage in them. In Northern Honan Province, namely in the plain southwest of Chinghwachen, the western terminus of the Taokow Chinghwa Railway, there are pretty good communication facilities; however this region is extremely impoverished with repeated ravages of war. Besides, it is a hotbed of epidemics, against which the Japanese expeditionary forces have to take ample precautions.

Movements of Enemy Troops

The Chungking troops, which crossed the Yellow River to the north are estimated at more than 20 divisions, some 200,000 strong, belonging to the 5th, the 14th and the 9th Group Armies under Wei Li-hwang, Commander-in-Chief of the so-called first war-zone. They built strong positions, semi-circular in form, along the Chungtiao mountain range. The Chinese troops in that part of the country were mopped up by our forces several times since the beginning of the present conflict. Especially heavy was the blow dealt them by us in the spring of last year, when a large-scale campaign was undertaken by our forces in Southern Shansi Province. And yet they attempted to get hold of Southern Shansi Province under strict orders of Chiang Kai-shek, who attached great importance to the Province as his base of operations for disturbing North China.

Development of the Operations

The Japanese forces, which had taken up their positions for encircling the Chungking troops, started their operations simultaneously from various directions at sunset on May 7.

Taking advantage of enemy forces which were fighting with their back to the Yellow River, our high command worked out a plan to cut off their retreat to the south across the River and then to encircle them in order to wipe them out. Our right column at nightfall on May 7 launched attacks upon the positions of the enemy 5th Group Army, some 10 divisions strong, simultaneously from Ann., Wenhsi and Chianghsien. By daybreak, the following morning, the major enemy resistance was broken, and toward the same evening the enemy retreat southward was cut off, all the ferry points near Yuanku and Pailang having been taken. The Chinese 5th Group Army was completely encircled north of the Yellow River by noon, May 9, when our other units surrounded the enemy from the outside.

The enemy in this sector offered stubborn resistance to our

furious onslaught, but the wedge, driven by our "drilling operations," resulted in cutting off their retreat as well as in disrupting the unity of their command, so that they were forced to wander about aimlessly within our steel ring flung round it. On the other hand, our left wing met with obstinate resistance from the enemy 14th Group Army, but the outflanking movement, successfully executed by our units from Tsinyang and Yuanku, eventually trapped the enemy in the steel ring.

In the Tsinyang plain, the Japanese forces broke through enemy positions near Tsiyuan. Pursuing the retreating enemy, part of our forces at noon, May 11, advanced to Kwangkow and another ferry-point east of it. The steel ring, flung round the enemy, was completed about noon, May 11, when one of our detachments advancing on Shaoyuanchen effected a junction with another detachment advancing from the west.

General Wei Li-hwang, Chinese Commander-in-Chief of the first war zone, ordered another group army under General Tang En-po to dash north from Southern Honan Province to provide against a possible Japanese advance south across the Yellow River. Chinese reinforcements were belated, however, because their troops, some 200,000 strong, had been trapped in our steel ring in Southern Shansi and Northern Honan Provinces north of the Yellow River.

Enemy troops, completely encircled, were entirely disrupted, many being killed, some fleeing deep into the mountains and some surrendering to our forces.

Brilliant Results of the Campaign

Within ten days after the beginning of their operations in Southern Shansi Province and Northern Honan Province, the Japanese forces have encircled and dealt enemy troops, some 200,000 strong, a crushing blow north of the Yellow River, thus shattering Chiang Kai-shek's attempts to launch a big spring offensive, with Southern Shansi and Northern Honan Provinces as the base of operations. The results of the campaign, ascertained up to May 18 from May 7 are as follows:

The enemy have left 33,449 dead, including a divisional commander. The death of an army commander and of a chief staff officer are confirmed, while many staff or commanding officers are apparently included among the dead found on the field. The Chinese officers and soldiers, taken prisoner, number 10,497, including 2 divisional commanders, 2 deputy divisional commanders, 1 surgeon major-general, and 1 chief staff-officer who is a

major-general. The Japanese booty include 26 field and mountain guns, 79 trench-mortars, 21,000 rounds of heavy ammunition, 92 heavy machine-guns, 257 light machine-guns, 9,488 rifles, 2,100,000 rounds of light ammunition and 30,450 hand grenades.

The sweeping victory, achieved by our forces in these operations, is due not only to their high morale but also to a carefully laid plan and to every possible means taken so as to enhance mobility.

Campaign North of the Yangtze River

In concert with the campaign launched in Southern Shansi and Northern Honan Provinces, the Japanese forces which had been standing ready near Suhsien, northwest of Hankow, took action on May 6 to start attacks on enemy positions along the line connecting Sinyang, Anlu and Ichang. By defeating the Chinese 59th Army everywhere, our forces steadily pushed their way, advancing to Hwantan, 40 kilometres southeast of Tsaoyang on May 10, and entering Tsaoyang itself on May 15. Mopping up operations against the remnants of the enemy are going on at this writing.

In the Chuki Sector

The Japanese forces massed at Chuki, launched an offensive on May 9 against the Chinese 86th Army, consisting of the 79th, 67th and 35th Divisions, which had taken up new positions along the line between Chentsaishih and Kwangshan, some 20 kilometres southeast of Chuki, and reinforced the old positions lying to the west, near Anhwachieh, with the 63rd and 148th Divisions brought from the rear. From those positions, the enemy attempted to start a counter-offensive, but our forces forestalled the enemy move, by taking action on the evening of May 12. Although a long spell of rain seriously hampered the movements of troops, our forces steadily advanced and by the evening of May 15 routed the enemy troops in a mountainous area north of Weishanchen.

In the Waichow Sector

Our military and naval forces made a joint attack on Waichow (Wa-yeung) on the East River in Kwangtung Province, where Chungking troops had been concentrating to recapture the Hongkong-Shaokwan route. On May 11, our forces advanced from Sheklung, Tsengshing (Tsengcheng), and Shumchun and also from the sea. The enemy were enveloped near Waichow on May 14. Those attempted to break through our steel ring were bombed or machine-gunned by our air forces which had been cooperating with the ground forces and naval units.

II

ACTIVITIES OF THE IMPERIAL NAVAL FORCES

(From January to May, 1941)

NAVAL INFORMATION BUREAU, IMPERIAL HEADQUARTERS

Activities of the Imperial naval forces in China during the period from January to May, 1941, which were carried out in close cooperation with the military forces, covered the key points in the interior of the country as well as the entire coast, obtaining highly satisfactory results. The following is their summary.

Our naval forces in North China waters were patrolling the area assigned to it, braving high seas and fighting against the inclement weather, they kept a vigilant watch over Chinese junks suspected of smuggling. And in concert with the military forces, they had mopped up remnants of enemy troops and suppressed bandits.

The naval force on the Yangtze River were guarding the waterway, some 1,000 miles long, by mopping up remnants of enemy troops which infested both banks of the river from time to time and by landing bluejackets to attack their bases of operation. A vigilant watch was kept here also over junks engaged in smuggling, while mine-sweeping operations were successfully undertaken. Forced reconnaissance on the waterway was effected to reopen it in cooperation with military units. The landing of those units was covered creditably by the naval force.

Our naval force on the Pearl River fully secured the waterway in concert with the military forces; operations for the removal of obstructions and mine-sweeping as well as for surveying the region were kept up along the river, and the bluejackets landed at various points on its banks to mop up remnants of the enemy.

Other naval units charged with the task of blockading the coast of China, not only suspended Chinese shipping along the entire coast to cut off supplies to the Chungking regime, but also blockaded its major ports and harbours. Remnants of enemy troops, which infested islands under our occupation, were cleaned up.

The Hongkong Shaokwan route, which the Chungking régime had been using for transportation of military supplies from abroad, was cut off by our naval forces in South China, which took action for the purpose on February 4.

On the other hand, surprise landings were effected at dawn, March 3, in close cooperation with military units, at key points on a strip of the coast extending over 400 kilometres on the Luichow (Leichow) Peninsula in order to tighten the blockade.

On April 19 and 20, when the Japanese expeditionary forces in Central China launched a fresh campaign in Eastern Chekiang Province, the naval forces acted in concert by opening a new waterway and escorting transports. Landing parties also were landed at key points on the coast of Eastern Chekiang Province and near Foochow, capital of Fukien Province. Joint operations of the military and naval forces resulted in an easy victory over enemy troops as well as in disruption and destruction of the supply routes to the Chungking régime. Our forces obtained a heavy booty in these operations, including several warships and enormous quantities of munitions.

Meanwhile, our naval air arm was active almost daily. It established an unchallenged command of the air in China, extending full measure of its cooperation to the land and naval forces. By surmounting the inclement weather and other obstacles, our naval air units made sustained raids on the strategic points in the interior of China, including Chungking, Chengtu, capital of Szechuan Province, Lanchow, capital of Kansu Province, and Kunming, capital of Yunnan Province; enemy air-fields, new and old, were also visited. Attempts of the Chungking régime to reconstruct its air force was shattered by our naval air arm, which successfully located remnants of their air force and destroyed them either in air duels or on the ground. Nor were other military works and communication facilities spared in our aerial attacks.

When the Burma Route was reopened, our naval air arm lost no time in dealing with it. Thus, the route, to which the Chiang Kai-shek régime attached so much importance as its only supply route from abroad, was suspended again shortly after its reopening when our naval air units scored direct hits on the Huitung (Salween) and Kungko Bridges over the deep gorges in the upper reaches of the Mekhong River.

The number of mines discovered and disposed of and losses of planes inflicted upon the Chungking régime by our naval air forces during the period under review are as follows:

(1) The number of mines discovered and disposed of		
	392	on the Yangtze River
	141	on the Pearl River and elsewhere
Total ¹	533	

¹ Grand total since the outbreak of the China Affair in July, 1937, amounts to 6,151

(2) Chinese losses in planes :	
84	Destroyed on the ground
37	Shot down
<hr/>	
Total ²	121

² Grand total since the outbreak of the China Affair in July, 1937, reaches 2,949.

CONCERNING THE FORMAL RECOGNITION OF MANCHOUKUO BY THE BULGARIAN GOVERNMENT

Statement by the President of the Board of Information
issued on May 20, 1941—

It is a matter for gratification that the Bulgarian Government accorded a formal recognition to Manchoukuo. In nine years since her establishment, Manchoukuo has received recognition from Japan, China, Germany, Italy, Spain, Hungary, Rumania, Slovakia and Salvador followed by the present recognition from Bulgaria.

While it is natural that Manchoukuo should thus be recognized in view of her remarkable progress in spheres of internal and external affairs, it is, nevertheless, a source of profound satisfaction to Japan which is constantly interested in helping the healthy development of that country.

The step taken by Bulgaria is greatly significant; and we firmly believe that it will serve to enhance intimate relations existing between Manchoukuo and Bulgaria and between Japan and Bulgaria.

CONCERNING THE EXCHANGE OF RATIFICATIONS OF THE TREATY OF AMITY BETWEEN JAPAN AND IRAN

—Announcement made by the Board of Information on May
29, 1941—

The exchange of ratifications of the Treaty of Amity between Japan and Iran, which was signed at Teheran on October 18, 1937, and ratified by Japan on December 16, last year, was completed at the Foreign Office of Iran on the 27th of this month between the Japanese Minister, Mr. Hikotaro Ichikawa, and the Deputy Foreign Minister of Iran, Mr. Ameri. The treaty will, therefore, be enforced as from June 11 of this year under the provisions of Article 4.

CONCERNING THE FOREIGN MINISTER'S STATE- MENT CLARIFYING JAPAN'S FOREIGN POLICY

—Published on May 30, 1941—

Some American newspapers are said to have recently carried reports conjecturing that Japan is becoming indifferent toward the Tripartite Pact. The Foreign Minister stated in this connection that there is no question whatever as to the fact that the Pact constitutes the immutable basis of Japan's foreign policy, and that he could hardly believe the American authorities to be entertaining such a misunderstanding. If there were any misunderstanding of that sort, he continued, it was an absurd misconception and that if such erroneous views were current in America, he could not but ascribe it to misleading information spread wilfully. Considering that it would not be entirely useless to clarify Japan's position on this point, he said as follows:

1. Japan's fundamental policy has for a long time been firmly established and has undergone no change whatever.

2. Since the conclusion on September 27, last, of the Tripartite Pact, Japan's foreign policy has consistently been conducted with this Pact as its pivot. This should be clear to all from the statements on various occasions by Prime Minister Prince Konoe and myself as well as from the subsequent development of Japan's policy. There has, of course, been not the slightest deflection from this course of policy.

3. It is, therefore, absolutely impossible to imagine that Japan should fail in the slightest degree to carry out faithfully her obligations under the Tripartite Pact.

4. As has frequently been affirmed, Japan's policy toward the South Seas is peaceful. Should, however, untoward international developments render the execution of such policy impossible, it is a possibility that Japan may have to reconsider her attitude in the light of the changed situation.

CONCERNING RECOGNITION OF THE STATE OF CROATIA

Announcement made by the Board of Information on
June 7, 1941—

The Japanese Government on this 7th day of June decided to

recognize the State of Croatia and accordingly the Foreign Minister, Mr. Yosuke Matsuoka, has informed the Croatian Government to that effect

CONCERNING THE TRADE NEGOTIATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE SOVIET UNION

—Announcement made by the Board of Information on
June 12, 1941—

For the purpose of concluding an agreement concerning commercial relations between Japan and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and an agreement concerning exchange of goods and payments between Japan and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, conversations have taken place at Moscow since February 17 between Lieutenant-General Yoshitsugu Tatekawa, the Japanese Ambassador, and M. A.I. Mikoyan, the People's Commissar for Foreign Trade. Owing to the conciliatory spirit on both sides, the negotiations had a favourable progress, and on June 11 the necessary steps were taken for fixing upon the texts of the two Agreements.

CONCERNING THE VISIT OF PRESIDENT WANG CHING-WEI OF THE NATIONAL GOVERN- MENT OF CHINA

—Announcement made by the Board of Information on
June 14, 1941—

Mr. Wang Ching-wei, President of the National Government of China and concurrently President of the Executive Yuan, in order to repay the courtesies tendered him from various quarters in Japan since the establishment of the new Central Government as well as for the purpose of discussing with the authoritative quarters concerning the question of cooperation between Japan and China, has left Shanghai on board the Yawata Maru for Japan today (June 14).

President Wang's party is scheduled to land at Kobe on the 16th, arriving at Tokyo Station the next morning. As President of the National Government, Mr. Wang will pay his call at the Palace on the 18th; and after the 19th, in his capacity as President of the

Executive Yuan, he is expected to meet the Prime Minister as well as the Foreign, War, Navy and Finance Ministers.

President Wang's party include, Mr. Wang, Mr. Chou Fo-hai, Vice-president of the Executive Yuan and Minister of Finance, Mr. Hsu Liang, Minister for Foreign Affairs; Mr. Lin Po-sheng, Minister of Publicity; and several others.

CONCERNING THE PARTICIPATION OF CROATIA IN THE THREE-POWER PACT

—Announcement made by the Board of Information on
June 15, 1941—

Croatia, recently recognized by the Japanese Government, has decided to participate in the Three-Power Pact, concluded between Japan, Germany and Italy. A Protocol concerning her participation was accordingly signed at Venice, on June 15, by the Plenipotentiaries representing the three Powers and by the Croatian Plenipotentiary.

The contents of the Protocol are similar to those of the Protocols signed at the time of the participation of Hungary and others.

CONCERNING THE DEMARCATION, ON THE SPOT, OF THE FRONTIER BETWEEN MANCHOUKUO AND OUTER MONGOLIA

—Announcement made by the Board of Information on
June 16, 1941—

Although the work for demarcation of the frontier between Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia on the spot was begun in September, 1940, in accordance with the Togo-Molotov Agreement, it had met technical difficulties unforeseen by both parties, and the approach of severe winter left no choice but to suspend the work.

However, having decided to continue the work with the coming of spring, the representatives of Manchoukuo and Outer Mongolia have met in conference at Chita since May 28, and succeeded in eliminating completely the above mentioned technical difficulties. Both parties, therefore, decided to begin the work of demarcation of the frontier on and from June 27.

CONCERNING THE JAPANESE-NETHERLANDS EAST INDIES NEGOTIATIONS

I

—Announcement by the Board of Information on
June 18, 1941—

The recent developments surrounding the Netherlands East Indies have rendered difficult a smooth progress of the negotiations between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies which have been conducted at Batavia since September of last year. As the result, the Japanese Government, deeming such contents as are embodied in the reply of June 6 from the Netherlands Delegation unsatisfactory to be specially made into an international agreement at this time, have decided to discontinue the negotiations and ordered Mr. Kenkichi Yoshizawa, our special Envoy, to return to Japan.

II

—Statement of the Director of the Third Division of the
Board of Information, Mr. Koh Ishii, June 18, 1941—

As early as in November, 1939, the Japanese Government proposed to the Netherlands Government to open economic negotiations between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies to which the latter agreed in principle. Accordingly we informally showed them the outline of our proposals. In the meantime, we carried on negotiations with the Netherlands authorities at Tokyo, The Hague and Batavia with respect to the opening of negotiations in a concrete manner. However, the European War spread to the Netherlands in May, 1940, and the Netherlands East Indies came to feel its effects with the result that the situation developed in such a manner that Japan, striving as she has been for the establishment of a new order in East Asia, could not remain indifferent. The Japanese Government, therefore, made a request to the Netherlands Government that the negotiations, with a view to establishing relationship of economic cooperation between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies be speedily opened.

The situation at that time was such that, since the Netherlands Government had moved to London and decided to carry on the

war in alliance with England and the economy of the Netherlands East Indies was mobilized for war purposes, the economic relations between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies was bound to be gravely affected. Due to the necessity of establishing the relationship of common prosperity through close cooperation among the peoples of East Asia, the Japanese Government cannot, of course, remain indifferent to the spread of the European War to the South Seas. Moreover, it was clear that the demand, on the part of Japan, for such resources as are found in the Netherlands East Indies would steadily increase in the course of her establishment of a highly organized defence State. Under these circumstances, it was necessary for Japan to be assured, as early as possible, of the supply of essential resources, and to establish economically cooperative relations between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies, thereby bringing about the stabilization of East Asia. The Japanese Government accordingly requested the Netherlands Government, in May of last year, for an assurance of supply to Japan of those important materials and goods which Japan expected of the Netherlands East Indies under the prevailing situation. In response to this, the Netherlands Government expressed their intention of actively cooperating with Japan, by assuring that the economic relations of the Netherlands East Indies with Japan would continue as smoothly as before, and confirming that such relations would be in harmony with vital interests of the Netherlands East Indies and would contribute toward the peace and stability of East Asia. On the basis of this agreement of views between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies, the Japanese Government have conducted economic negotiations at Batavia since September of last year, exerting utmost efforts for their amicable conclusion.

The negotiations between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies are so varied as to include not only the question of acquiring materials and goods, but the question of promoting general trade relations, the entry of the Japanese into the Netherlands East Indies, the pursuit of occupations, the investments in enterprises, shipping, aviation service, and communications. As regards the aforementioned matters, especially aviation connections, they are already being carried on between the third Powers and the Netherlands East Indies; and in investments in enterprises, such as the oil industry, Anglo-American capital has been showing remarkable activities. The third Powers are thus very liberally permitted to engage in all these enterprises. In the light of these facts, the requests of the Japanese Government are very reasonable. If such Japanese requests, as for the participation of the Japanese in the

development of abundant natural resources of the Netherlands East Indies, the entry of the Japanese there attendant upon such development, the pursuit of occupations, the calls of Japanese ships at closed ports for the purpose of transporting materials produced by such development, partial opening of the coast-wise navigation to Japanese ships and the development of the fishing industry by the Japanese who are there, were dealt with on the basis of promoting economic cooperation between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies, the solution of these questions would be very simple.

Regarding these requests, the Netherlands East Indies Government, on their part, have stressed that the basis of their policy lies in the progress, prosperity and emancipation of the inhabitants of the Netherlands East Indies. It is clear, however, that the proposals of the Japanese Government do not in any respect run counter to such a policy of the Netherlands East Indies. Needless to say that the progress, prosperity and emancipation of those inhabitants can be promoted, on the part of the Netherlands East Indies, through the establishment of economic cooperation between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies, and thereby contribute toward the peace and stability of East Asia.

However, along with the intensification of economic warfare the situations surrounding the Netherlands East Indies have made difficult a smooth progress of the negotiations. The reply of the Netherlands of June 6 not only is very unsatisfactory but asserts, in connection with the question of acquisition of essential materials and goods to which Japan attaches importance, that their quantities may be decreased at any time to suit their own convenience. In view of the fact that regarding this question, the Government of the Netherlands and as well as the Netherlands East Indies authorities have, on many occasions in the past, made promises or declarations to Japan, the Japanese Government, deeming such contents as are embodied in the Netherlands reply to be hardly worth being specially incorporated in an international agreement, have decided to discontinue the negotiations and to withdraw their Delegation, ordering Mr. Kenkichi Yoshizawa, their special Envoy, to return to Japan. However, it goes without saying that Japan will hold fast to her just and fair contentions, while the normal relations between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies will by no means be affected by the discontinuance of the negotiations.

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